

because of their unique nature – highly capital-intensive, few employment spin-offs, and technologically too specialised – they must be disregarded as having no more than a ‘trifling’ effect on regional growth.

In Algeria the northern termini of the pipeline systems are linked to major ports. It is here that hydrocarbons, combined with a well-developed infrastructure, plentiful supplies of skilled and unskilled labour, and proximity to domestic and external markets, have made their most striking regional impact. Accordingly, the oil- and gas-processing centres have been designated as ‘growth poles’, and as such will contain a heavy industrial base around which associated enterprises are to be grouped. It is anticipated that industrial spread-effects will take place through backward and forward linkages. The philosophy of Algerian regional policy is based on the ‘fight against economic disparities’, and yet from the mass of evidence assembled by the author it would appear that present oil policies merely exacerbate regional inequalities, so that the richer north becomes richer and the poorer south poorer both in absolute and relative terms.

The concluding chapters focus attention primarily on the Algerian natural gas industry. A brief assessment is made of the position of gas as an export, and its place within the domestic energy economy. Since these particular chapters were written, however, a good deal has changed – for example, the Algerian–Italian underwater gas pipeline is being laid, contrary to the information on p. 186. A more up-to-date summary of the current situation is provided by Keith Sutton, ‘Natural Gas in Algeria’, in *Geography* (Sheffield), 64, 2, April 1979, while readers who want an in-depth analysis of the hydrocarbon industry, with particular emphasis on natural gas, should consult *The Hydrocarbon Development Plan of Algeria: financial projections, 1976–2005* (California, 1977), a report prepared by the Bechtel Corporation for Sonatrach.

Schliephake has produced an excellent empirical study, and an important contribution to the literature relating to the impact of hydrocarbons on regional development in Africa. There is a totally inadequate map which omits many names mentioned in the text, but this weakness does not ultimately detract from the many merits of this book.

JONATHAN BAKER

Department of Economics, Agder Distrikthøgskole, Kristiansand, Norway

Europe and Africa: from association to partnership by CAROL COSGROVE TWITCHETT

Farnborough, Saxon House, 1978. Pp. xv + 195. £8.50.

After World War II, when nationalism had become an abiding faith and when decolonisation was the order of the day, a number of European nations set out to create their own union, and to bring into its ambit the growing number of African countries that were in the throes of their pre-independence birth pangs. Carol Cosgrove Twitchett relates the problems and the successes that have marked the efforts of associating first Africa – and later an amalgam of

developing countries – with Europe, and shows how this relationship has been achieved without succumbing to the charge of neo-colonialism that has all too often been levelled at it.

The first five chapters of *Europe and Africa: from association to partnership* are taken up with the early efforts at European economic integration, and particularly the forging of relations with the French and Belgian colonies in Africa – soon to be independent. The last two chapters are, respectively, an evaluation of the forms taken by the Eur-African association – the Yaoundé Conventions of 1963 and 1969 – and the prospects for the enlarged European Economic Community and the developing countries now linked together under the Lomé Convention of 1975.

The main protagonists in the drama were the European Community of the Six and the 18 Associated African and Malagasy States, while the members of the East African Community, who sought association with the E.E.C. under Article 238 of the Rome Treaty, played the rôle of a supporting cast on the side of the African States. Within the Six, France first conceived the idea of bringing the colonial territories into a form of association with Europe, to ensure not only ready markets for their products without the hurdle of the common external tariff of the Six, but also – and this was very important – to ensure that the sources of raw materials would not be denied to France. These were the basic reasons for association, but there were others, sometimes bordering on altruism, such as helping the economic and social development of poor countries. France persuaded, cajoled, and sometimes browbeat her reluctant neighbours – especially West Germany and the Netherlands who, not wanting to be labelled ‘neo-colonialist’, preferred a system that was open to all developing countries – into accepting the proposed type of relationship. In the end it was to the credit of France that the Association became a reality.

If the Association *per se* was desired by all concerned, mainly because of what it could do for their trade, it was the European Development Fund that was to help develop the fledgling economies of the Associated Members. Certainly, the E.D.F. has been the centre-piece of the E.E.C. aid and development programmes ever since it became operational in March 1959. Twitchett has rightly described the operations of the Fund in considerable detail; how it got off to a slow start, owing to the political nature of its operations, and to the changed status of the African colonies after 1960, and how the exacting requirements for pre-financing project evaluation made it almost impossible for a number of countries to utilise the facilities of the Fund because they lacked the necessary technical expertise. However, over the years the E.D.F. has become effective in distributing aid to the Associated Members, and was the first multilateral aid agency in the field. Even so, its aid remains only a sop to the Associated Members because the contribution it makes to their development pales into insignificance compared with their growing requirements, and to the bilateral aid of the individual members of the Six. The author does not lose sight of this in praising the efforts of the E.D.F.

France, of course, continues to be the main trading partner for the francophone members of the Lomé Convention, as well as their principal source of capital, but the Association first helped to diversify the destination of exports and sources of imports and technology, from a high concentration on France

to other members of the Six, especially West Germany, Italy and, to some extent, the Netherlands. With the accession of Britain to the Treaty of Rome, the expanded E.E.C. has become the largest single market for the Associated Members, taking about 44 per cent of their exports.

The Lomé Convention has globalised the policy of the European Community towards developing countries, and the success so far of its operations is evidenced by its renegotiation for a second period of five years after the expiry of the original 1975 agreement in March 1980. Under Lomé I the E.E.C. adopted the novel *Stabex* scheme of export revenue compensation, whereby individual African, Caribbean, and Pacific states are compensated for any losses they might suffer from deteriorating terms of trade arising from fluctuations in the prices of their exports. There are also provision for trade and industrial co-operation between the 46 (now 58) A.C.P. members and the E.E.C.

It would be possible to list a number of minor errors in this otherwise excellent book. Such carping would not, however, derogate from the usefulness of this very good account of E.E.C.–African relationship. *Europe and Africa: from association to partnership* is a welcome addition to the growing literature on the subject.

KWASI KWARTENG

Office of the Trade Adviser, Commonwealth Secretariat, Geneva

The Nature of Mass Poverty by JOHN KENNETH GALBRAITH
Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1979. Pp. 150. \$8.95.

John Kenneth Galbraith is always readable. Unlike many economists he does not fill his books with unintelligible backward-bending curves. He attempts to be sociological, and is often controversial, as in his latest work, *The Nature of Mass Poverty*, which is as interesting to read as any other general text that he has written previously. Unfortunately, it also has weaknesses as great as the author's well-deserved reputation as one of America's leading liberal thinkers.

The thesis advanced by Galbraith is simple. He argues that a certain tendency to an equilibrium of poverty invariably attaches to poor countries. Any gains made are soon lost to population pressure: 'The increase will, in effect, consume itself' (p. 56). Reacting rationally to this, the poor resign themselves to their condition; they refuse 'to struggle against the impossible' (p. 62). However, there are usually those who seek to escape, and therefore the fight against mass poverty should focus on this minority that rejects the tendency to accommodate themselves to poverty. They must be helped by education, 'an absolutely necessary' condition (p. 100), and even more importantly, they should be assisted to migrate to the economically advanced countries where they can find greater opportunities to realise their dreams.

Galbraith's arguments suffer mostly from his methodology. He quickly discounts the approach that seeks to understand the poverty of many countries by looking at their past history of colonial exploitation, and their present economic, political, and social linkages with the 'developed' world. 'The most drastic improvement in the terms of trade of primary products... would not